

Decision Making *in Robots and Autonomous Agents*

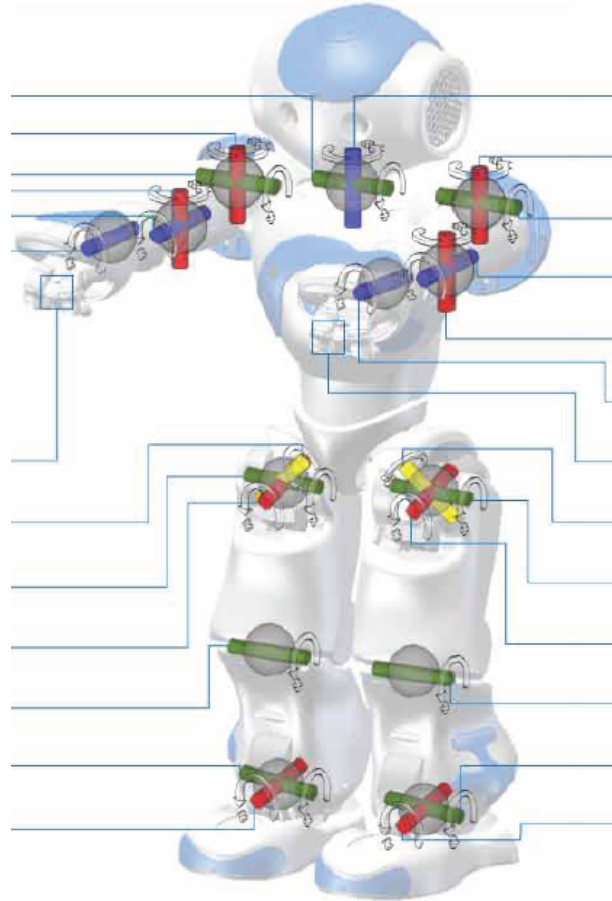
Causality:

How should a robot reason about cause and effect?

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What do you Need to Know about your Robot?



What does Robot Need to Know?

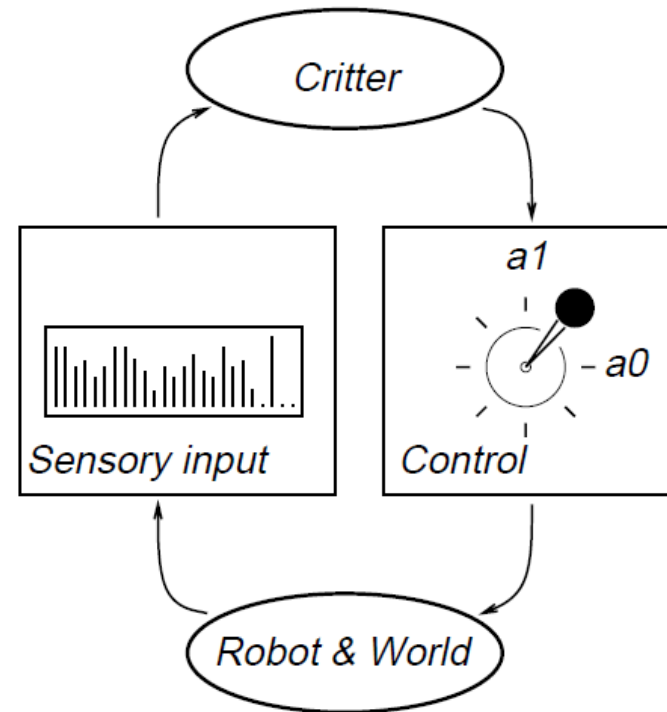
- Given access to raw data channels for various (uninterpreted) sensors and motors
- Devise a procedure for learning that will tell you what you need for various tasks (as yet unspecified)
 - What types of models?
 - What types of learning methods?

What are you Learning from?

1. 896007	4. 323841	22. 664253	4. 202899	1. 213200	22. 664253	1. 967881	2. 245012	22. 664253	2. 397054
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An Experiment: How Much can we Learn from Uninterpreted Data?

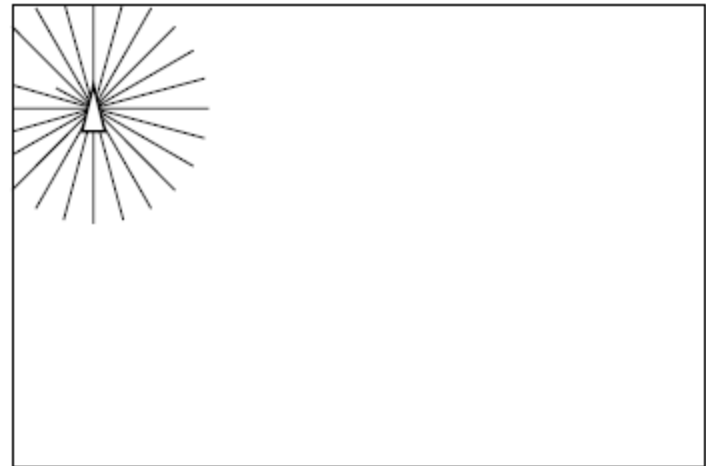
- Learn models of robot and environment with no initial knowledge of what sensors and actuators are doing
- Many learning methods begin this way, e.g., RL, but the goal here is to construct a representation incrementally and continually as well



[D. Pierce, B.J. Kuipers, Map learning with un-interpreted sensors and effectors, *Artificial Intelligence* 91:169-227, 1997.]

Simple Scenario

- Robot critter has a set of distance sensors (range) – one of which is defective – but it doesn't know that yet
- Other sensors: battery power, digital compass
- It has a track-style motor apparatus – turn by differentially actuating its wheels



What do you Learn from?

Randomized actions (hold a randomly chosen action for 10 time steps), repeatedly applied



**How does environment appear in the data?
Can there be a simple empirical learning scheme?**

One Step: Go from Raw Channels to Structure of Sensor Array

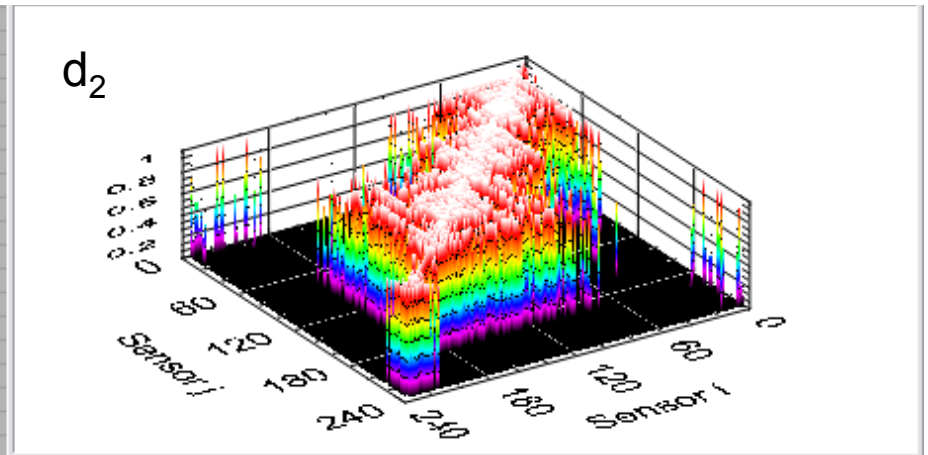
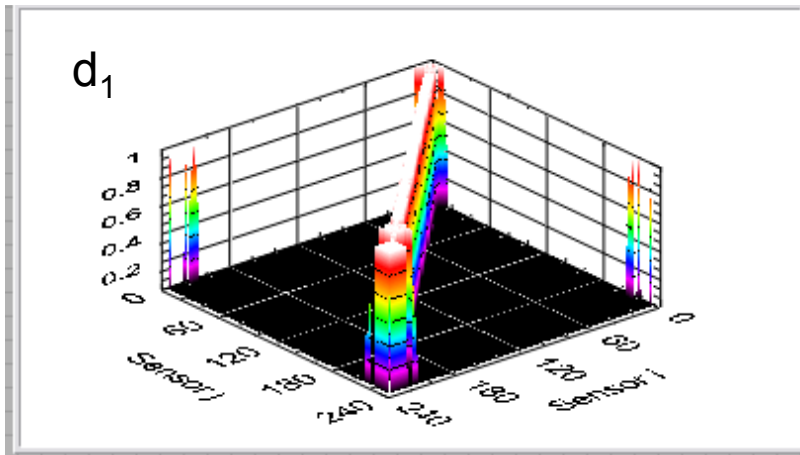
- Sensors may come in groupings: ring of distance sensors, array of photoreceptors, video camera, etc.
- We first want to extract groupings based on two criteria:
 - Sensors that have similar values over time
 - Sensors that have a similar frequency domain behaviour
- Two simple hypothesised distance metrics:

$$d_{1,ij}(t) = \frac{1}{t+1} \sum_{\tau=0}^t |x_i(\tau) - x_j(\tau)|.$$

$$d_{2,ij} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_l |(\mathbf{dist} x_i)_l - (\mathbf{dist} x_j)_l|,$$

Distribution (e.g., counts)

Example Trace



$$i \approx_k j \text{ if } d_{k,ij} < \min\{\epsilon_{k,i}, \epsilon_{k,j}\}.$$

$$\epsilon_{k,i} = 2 \min_j \{d_{k,ij}\}.$$

Extending the Group Notion

We can reason transitively about similarity:

$$i \sim j \text{ iff } i \approx j \vee \exists k: (i \sim k) \wedge (k \sim j).$$

So, a wandering trace might yield something like this as groups:

(0 1 2 22 23) (0 1 2 3 23) (0 1 2 3 4) (1 2 3 4 5) (2 3 4 5 6) (3 4 5 6 7)
(4 5 6 7) (5 6 7 8 9) (7 8 9 10) (7 8 9 10 11) (8 9 10 11 12) (9 10 11 12 13)
(10 11 12 13 14) (11 12 13 14 15) (12 13 14 15 16) (13 14 15 16 17)
(14 15 16 17 18) (15 16 17 18 19) (16 17 18 19) (17 18 19 21) (20)
(19 21 22 23) (0 21 22 23) (0 1 21 22 23) (24) (25) (26) (27) (28).

Upon Taking the *Transitive Closure*

(0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 21 22 23)

(20) *defective*

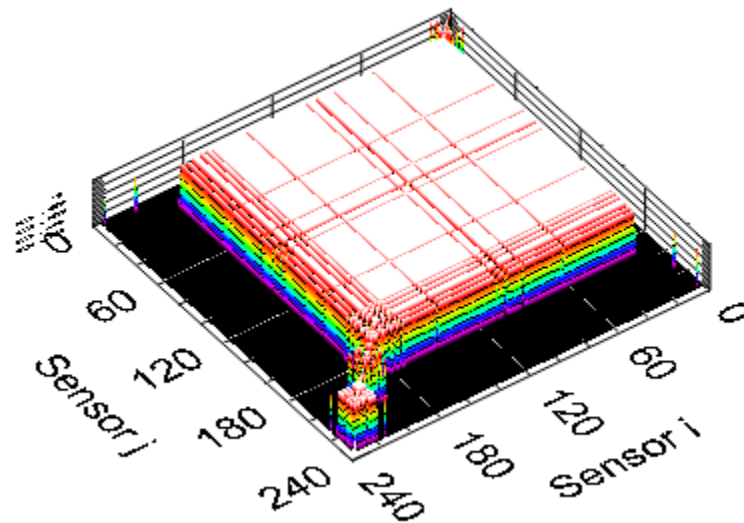
(24) *battery voltage*

(25) *east*

(26) *north*

(27) *west*

(28) *south*



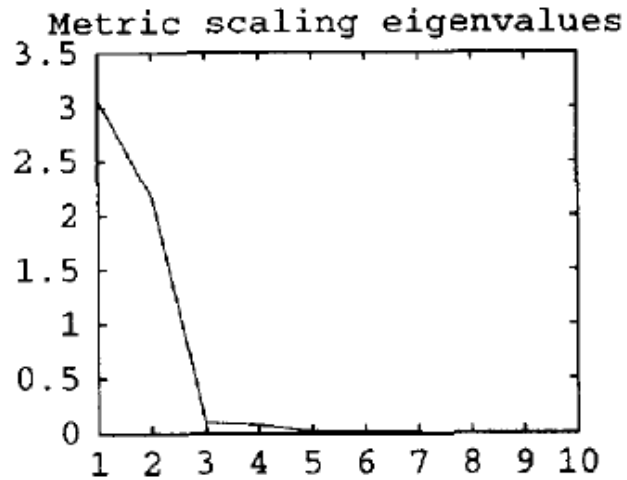
Getting at the Structure of Array

- Task is to find an assignment of positions (in space) to elements that captures the structure of the array as reflected in distance metric d_1 .
- Distance between positions in image \approx distance between elements according to d_1 .

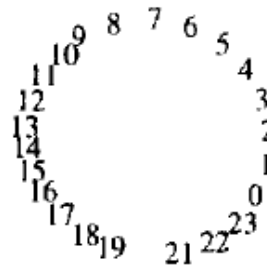
$$\|(\mathit{pos} \ y_i) - (\mathit{pos} \ y_j)\| = d_{1,ij},$$

- This is a constraint satisfaction problem: n sensor elements yield $n(n-1)/2$ constraints.
- Could solve by metric scaling: $E = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij} (\|(\mathit{pos} \ y_i) - (\mathit{pos} \ y_j)\| - d_{ij})^2$.

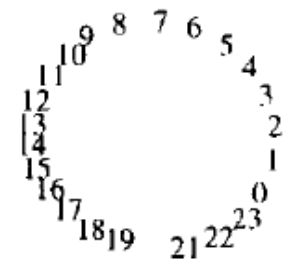
Structural Model of Distance Array



a



b

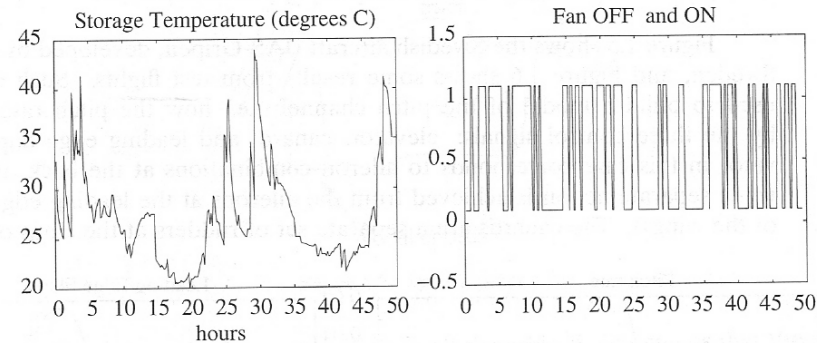
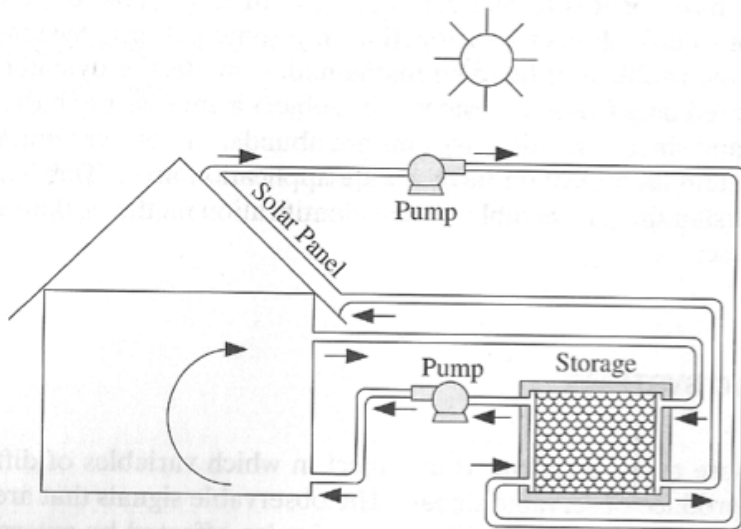


c

Various Types of Models

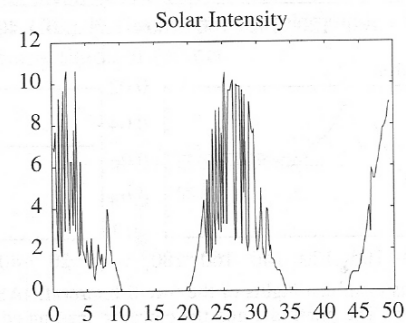
- Models of motion
 - Own dynamics
 - Object dynamics
 - Other agents
- Models of environment
 - Space & how I move in space
 - Other navigation considerations
- Models of self
 - What is the connection between my sensors and actuators?
 - What do the sensorimotor channels even mean?
 - How to ground all of the above at this low level?

Example: Solar-Heated House (Ljung)



(a) Storage temperature

(a) Pump velocity



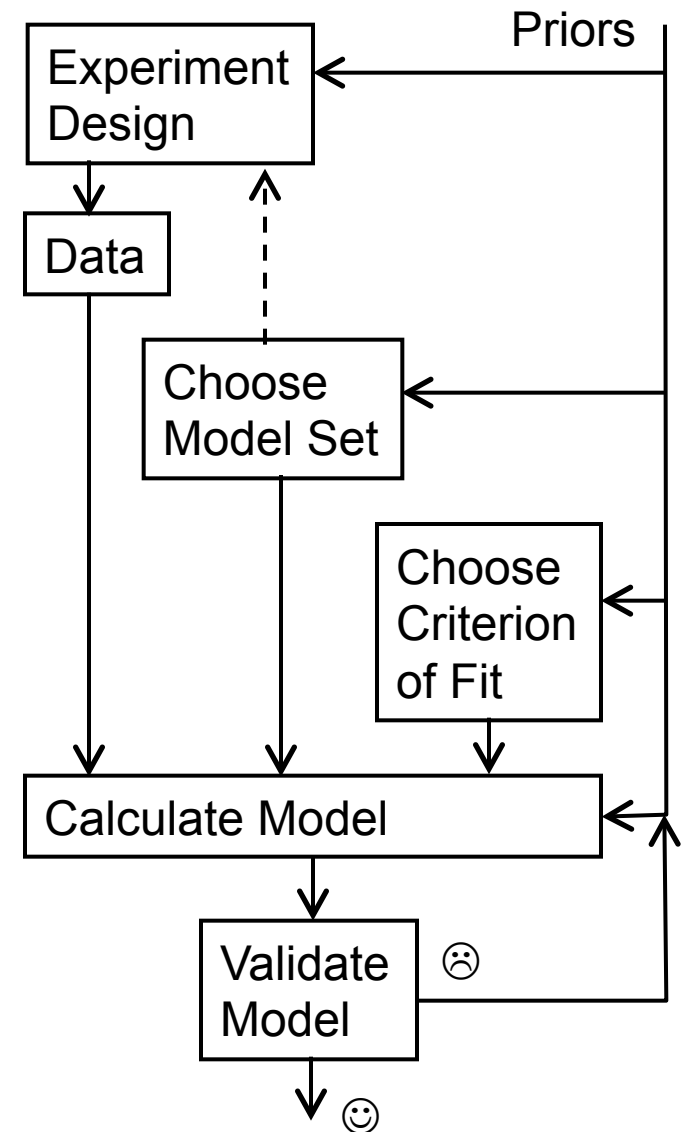
- The sun heats the air in the solar panels
- The air is pumped into a heat storage (box filled with pebbles)
- The stored energy can be later transferred to the house
- For control, one cares about how solar radiation, $w(t)$, and pump velocity, $u(t)$, affect heat storage temperature, $y(t)$.

System Identification in Engineering

In building a model, the designer has control over three parts of the process

1. Generating the **data set**
2. Selecting a (set of) **model structure** (e.g., autoregressive linear model)
3. Selecting the **criteria** (e.g., least squares over output error), used to specify the optimal parameter estimates

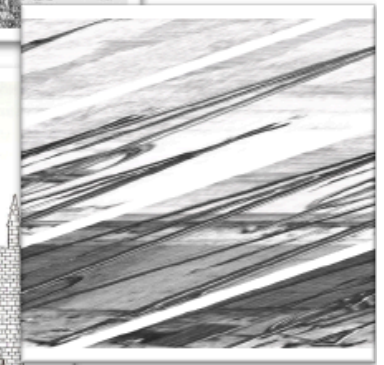
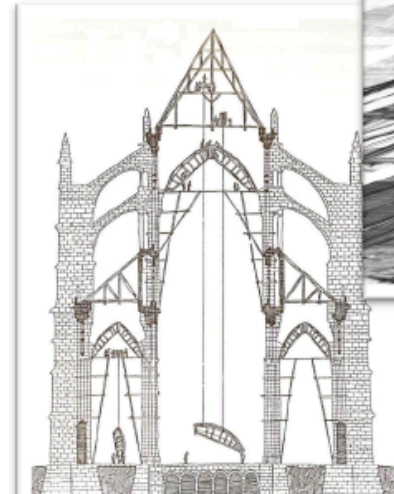
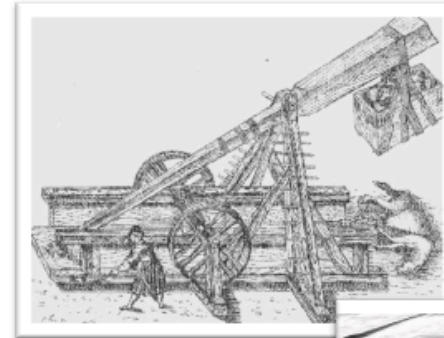
A very popular approach involves (recursive) parameter estimation



On the Nature of Scientific Questions

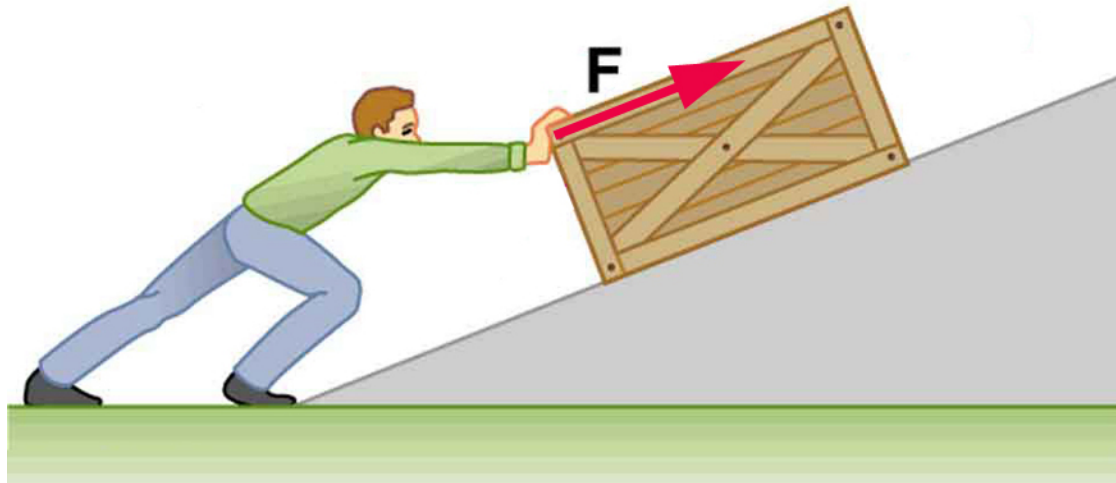
Science seeks to understand and explain physical observations

- Why doesn't the wheel turn?
- What if I make the beam half as thick, will it carry the load?
- How do I shape the beam so it will carry the load?



What Do Laws Tell Us About Causality?

- Does acceleration cause the force?
- Does the force cause the acceleration?
- Does the force cause the mass?



Different Views on Causation

- Hume (1711 – 1776) [Causation as perception]

We remember seeing the flame and feeling a sensation called heat; without further ceremony, we call one cause and the other effect

- Pearson (1857 – 1936) [Statistical Machine Learning view]

Forget causation! Correlation is all you should ask for.

- Pearl (1936 -) [Mathematics of causality]

Forget empirical observations! Define causality based on a network on known, physical causal relationships

Two Major Questions about Causality

1. Learning of causal connections: What empirical evidence legitimizes a cause – effect connection?
 - How do people ever acquire knowledge of causation
 - e.g., does a rooster cause the sun to rise?
 - succession, correlations are not sufficient
 - e.g. Roosters crow before dawn, both ice cream sales and crime rate increase at the same time (in summer months)
2. Use of causal connection
 - What inferences can be drawn from causal information and how?
 - e.g. what would change if the rooster were to cause the sun to rise, can we make the night shorter by waking him up early?

What is Special about these Questions?

- These are “What If?” kind of questions
- **Interventional** questions such as “What if I act?”
- **Retrospective** or **explanatory** questions such as “What if I had acted differently?”
- How would we answer such questions using the standard machine learning toolbox?

DISCUSS

Three Layer Causal Hierarchy

- We can think in terms of a classification of causal information
- Based on the type of questions that each class is capable of answering
- 3 – level hierarchy in the sense that questions at a level i ($i = 1,2,3$) can only be answered if information from a level j (j greater than or equal to i) is available

3-layer Causal Hierarchy

Level (Symbol)	Typical Activity	Typical Questions	Examples
1. Association $P(y x)$	Seeing	What is? How would seeing X change my belief in Y ?	What does a symptom tell me about a disease? What does a survey tell us about the election results?
2. Intervention $P(y do(x), z)$	Doing Intervening	What if? What if I do X ?	What if I take aspirin, will my headache be cured? What if we ban cigarettes?
3. Counterfactuals $P(y_x x', y')$	Imagining, Retrospection	Why? Was it X that caused Y ? What if I had acted differently?	Was it the aspirin that stopped my headache? Would Kennedy be alive had Oswald not shot him? What if I had not been smoking the past 2 years?

[Pearl 2017]

3-layer Causal Hierarchy

Association: invokes purely statistical relationships, defined directly by the raw data

- This is learnt by any “black-box” of purely model free and data driven algorithm
- Famous examples such as that diapers and beer are often bought together

Intervention: ranks higher because it asks about a change in observed variables

- Example: what happens if we double the price – how will the customer respond?

3-level Causal Hierarchy

Counterfactuals: “What if I had acted differently?”

- Subsume interventional and associational questions

If we have a model at a higher level, the lower level can be answered easily

e.g., if we had counterfactual model, then the interventional question can be simply posed as:

What would happen if we double the price? = What would happen *had the price been* double its current value?

Another Way to Conceptualize Hierarchy

- Action sentences
 - B (would be true) if we **do** A
- Counterfactuals
 - \neg B would change to B (B would be different) **if it were** A
- Explanation
 - B occurred **because of** A

Extended Version of Hierarchy

- Action sentences

- B if we **do** A With probability p

- Counterfactuals

- \neg B would change to B **if it were** A With probability p

- Explanation

- B occurred **because of** A With probability p

Judea Pearl's Model: Major Ideas

Concept	Formalization
Causation	Encoding of behaviour under intervention
Intervention	Surgeries on mechanisms
Mechanisms	Functional Relationships by equations and graphs

Pearl's Model: Key Steps

- Devise a computational scheme for causality to facilitate prediction of the effects of “actions”
 - Use “Intervention” for “Action”
 - As actions are external entities originating “outside” the theory
- Mechanism: Autonomous physical laws or mechanisms of interest
 - We can change one without changing the others
 - e.g. logic gates of a circuit, mechanical linkages

Pearl's Model: Key Steps

- Intervention
 - Breakdown of a mechanism = surgery
- Causality
 - Which mechanism is to be surgically modified by a given action

Example to Ponder - 1

- If the grass is wet, then it rained
- If we break this bottle, the grass gets wet
- Conclusion: If we break this bottle, then it rained!

Example to Ponder - 2

- A suitcase will open *iff* both locks are open
- The right lock is open
- What happens if we open the left lock?

- Not sure – the right lock might get closed!

Modelling Causality

Causal Model $M = (U, V, F)$

- $U = \text{Exogenous variables}$
 - Values are determined by factors outside the model
- $V = \text{Endogenous variables}$
 - Values are described by structural equations
- F is a set of structural equations $\{F_X | X \in V\}$ (endogenous)
 - F_X is a mapping, tells us the value of X given the values of all the other variables in U and V
 - represents a mechanism or law in the world

Example: Modelling Causality

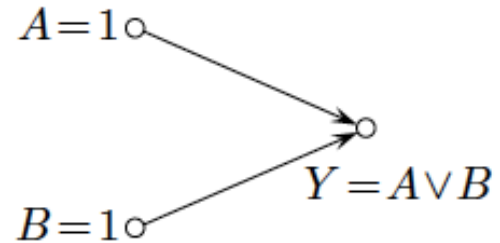
- Forest fire could be caused by lightning or a lit match by an arsonist
- Endogenous variables, Boolean
 - F for fire
 - L for lightning
 - ML for match lit.
- Exogenous variables, U
 - Whether wood is dry
 - Whether there is enough oxygen in the air

$$F_F(U, L, ML) \text{ s.t. } F = 1 \text{ if } L = 1 \text{ or } ML = 1$$

Causal Networks

- Causal structural models:

- Variables: A, B, Y
- Structural equations: $Y = A \vee B$

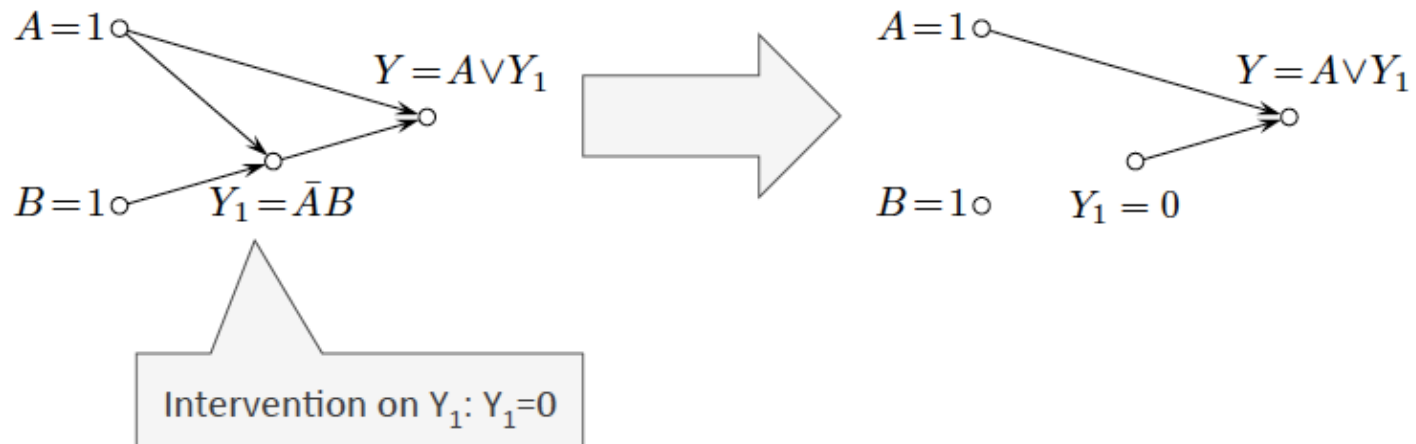


- Modeling problems:

- *E.g., A bottle breaks if either Alice or Bob throw a rock at it.*
- Endogenous variables:
 - Alice throws a rock (A)
 - Bob throws a rock (B)
 - The bottle breaks (Y)
- Exogenous variables:
 - Alice's aim, speed of the wind, bottle material etc.

Intervention/Contingency

- External interventions modify the structural equations or values of the variables.



Counterfactuals

- If not A then not φ

- In the absence of a cause, the effect doesn't occur

$$C = A \wedge B, \quad A = 1 \wedge B = 1 \quad \longleftarrow \text{Both counterfactual}$$

- Problem: Disjunctive causes

- If Alice doesn't throw a rock, the bottle still breaks (because of Bob)

- Neither Alice nor Bob are counterfactual causes

$$C = A \vee B, \quad A = 1 \wedge B = 1 \quad \longleftarrow \text{No counterfactual causes}$$

Actual Causes

[simplification]

A variable X is an actual cause of an effect Y if there exists a contingency that makes X counterfactual for Y .

$$C = A \vee B, \quad A = 1 \wedge B = 1 \longleftarrow \text{A is a cause under the contingency } B=0$$

A Definition of Actual Cause

- Actual causes are of the form
 - $X_1 = x_1 \wedge X_2 = x_2 \wedge \dots \wedge X_k = x_k$
 - In short, $X = x$
- For $X = x$ to be an actual cause of event Z The following three conditions should hold
 - Both $X = x$ and Z are true in the actual world
 - Changing X to x' and some other variables W from w to w' changes Z from true to false
 - Setting W to w' does not have an effect on Z
- X is minimal- no subset of X satisfies the above two conditions

Example 1

$$Y = X_1 \wedge X_2$$

$X_1 = 1$ is counterfactual for $Y = 1$

$$X_1 = 1, X_2 = 1 \Rightarrow Y = 1$$

$$X_1 = 0, X_2 = 1 \Rightarrow Y = 0$$

Example 2

$$Y = X_1 \vee X_2$$

$X_1 = 1$ is **not** counterfactual for $Y=1$

$X_1 = 1$ is an actual cause for $Y = 1$, with contingency $X_2 = 0$

$$X_1 = 1, X_2 = 1 \Rightarrow Y = 1$$

$$X_1 = 1, X_2 = 0 \Rightarrow Y = 1$$

$$X_1 = 0, X_2 = 0 \Rightarrow Y = 0$$

Example 3

$$Y = (\neg X_1 \wedge X_2) \vee X_3$$

$X_1 = 1$ is **not** counterfactual for $Y = 1$

$X_1 = 1$ is **not** an actual cause for $Y = 1$

$$X_1 = 1, X_2 = 1, X_3 = 1 \Rightarrow Y = 1$$

$$X_1 = 0, X_2 = 1, X_3 = 1 \Rightarrow Y = 1$$

$$X_1 = 1, X_2 = 0, X_3 = 1 \Rightarrow Y = 1$$

$$X_1 = 0, X_2 = 0, X_3 = 1 \Rightarrow Y = 1$$

.....

Y never changes by flipping X_1 for all combinations of X_2, X_3

Measure of Causality: Responsibility

A measure of the degree of causality

$$\rho = \frac{1}{1 + \min_{\Gamma} |\Gamma|} \leftarrow \text{size of the contingency set}$$

Example

$$Y = A \wedge (B \vee C)$$

$$A = B = C = 1 \Rightarrow Y = 1$$

A=1 is counterfactual for Y=1 ($\rho=1$)

B=1 is an actual cause for Y=1, with contingency C=0 ($\rho=0.5$)

Probabilistic Causal Model

Represented by a pair $(M, P(u))$

- $P(u)$ is a probability function defined over the exogenous variables U
- Each endogenous variable in V is a function of exogenous variables U
 - also gives a distribution on V
- In turn gives the probability of counter-factual statement $Pr(Y_{X=x} = y)$ or simply $Pr(Y_X = y)$

Probabilistic Model

Necessity

$$\begin{aligned} Pr(Y_{X=x'} = y' | X = x, Y = y) \\ = Pr(y'_{x'} | x, y) \end{aligned}$$

The probability that event y would not have occurred in the absence of event x , ($= y'_{x'}$), given that x and y did in fact occur

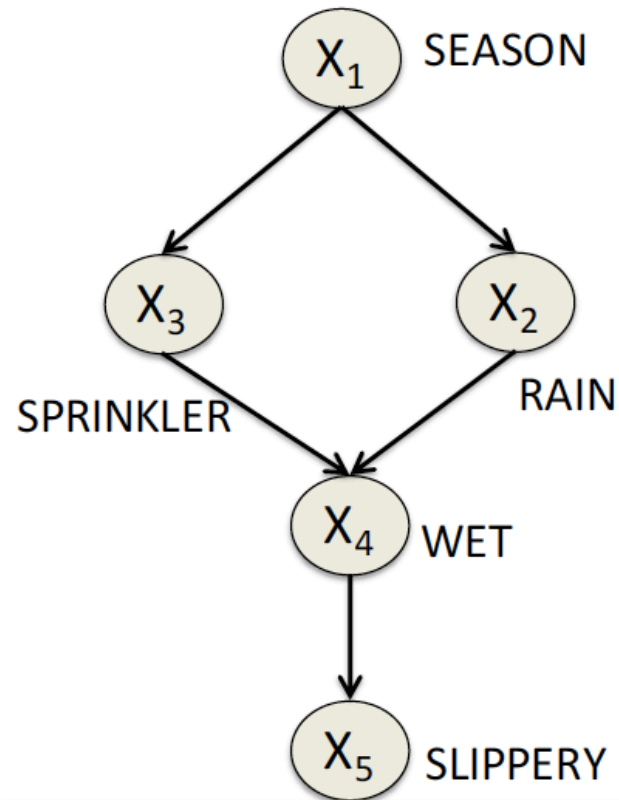
Sufficiency

$$\begin{aligned} Pr(Y_{X=x} = y | X = x', Y = y') \\ = Pr(y_x | x', y') \end{aligned}$$

The probability that setting x would produce y in a situation where x & y are in fact absent

Ability of event x *to produce* event y

Worked Example on Structural Equations: Conditional Probability vs. Action



Observing versus Acting to make $X_3 = ON$

Conditional Probability of a Counterfactual Sentence

If we want to compute probability of:

“ {if it were A then B } given evidence e ”

we might use the following three step procedure:

1. Abduction

- Update $P(u)$ by evidence to get $P(u|e)$

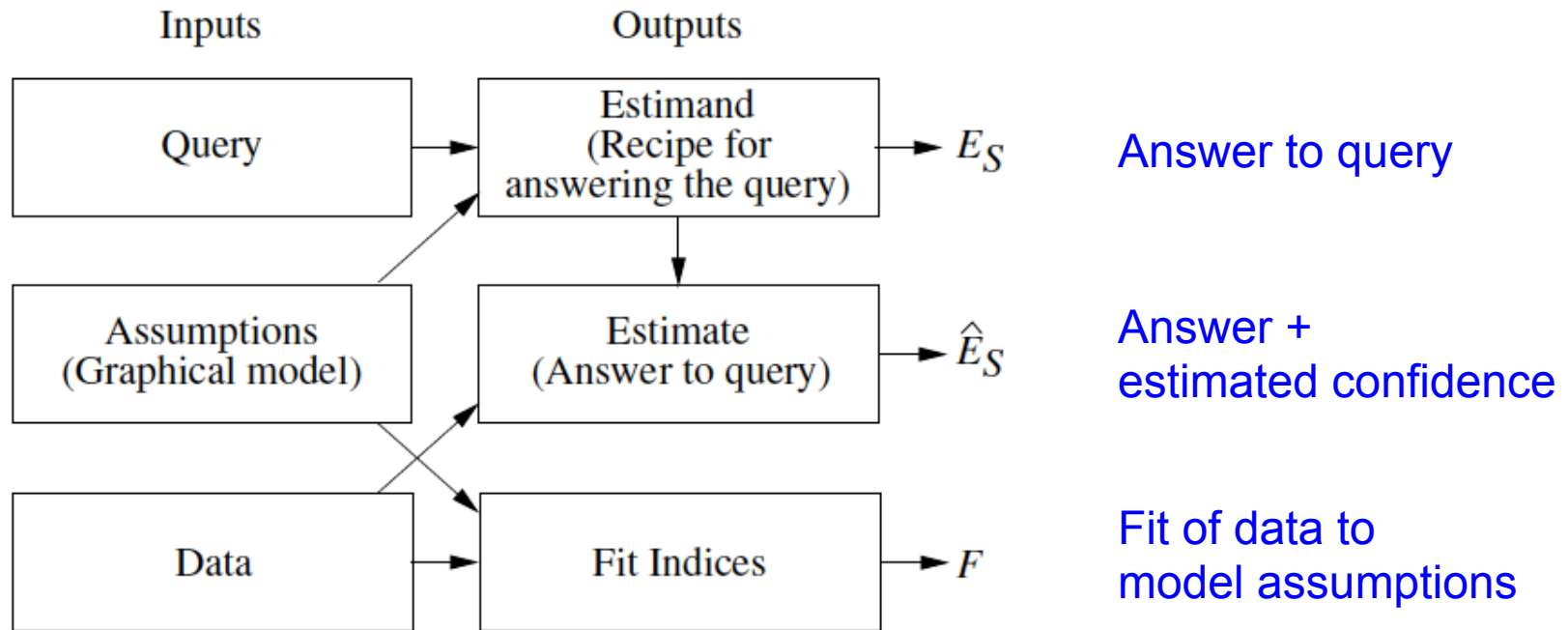
2. Action

- Modify M by action $do(A)$, where A is antecedant of the counterfactual, to yield M_A

3. Deduction

- Use $P(u|e)$ and M_A to compute probability of counterfactual consequence B

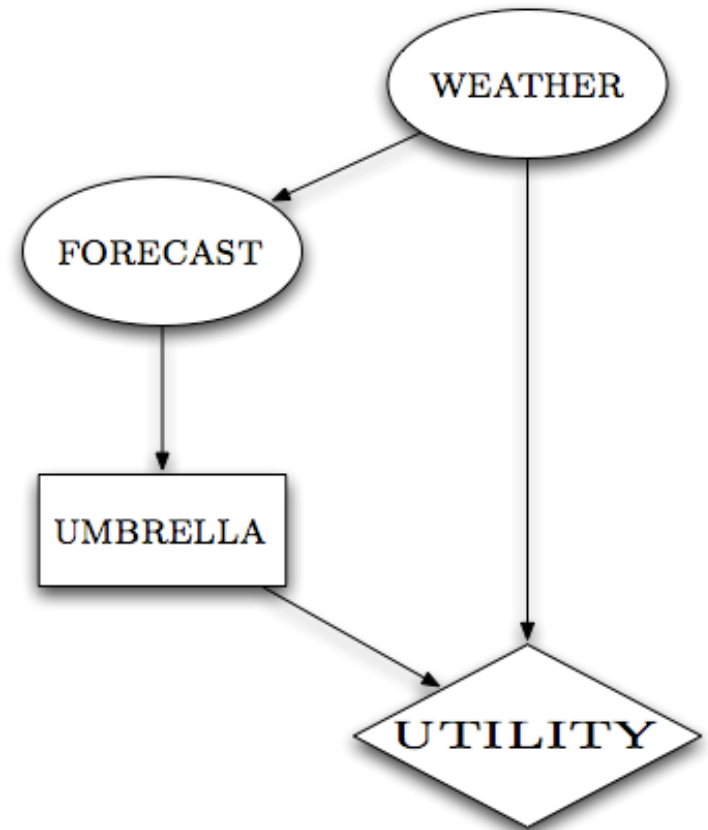
Pearl's View of a Structural Equations based "Inference Engine"



[Pearl 2017]

Recap: Influence Diagrams [Howard & Matheson '84]

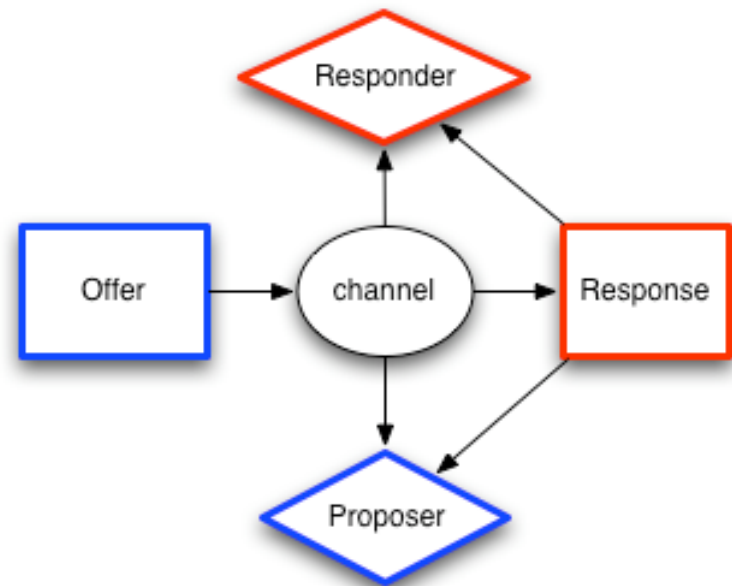
- Influence Diagrams (ID) extend Bayesian Networks for decision making.
- *Rectangles* are decisions; *ovals* are chance variables; *diamonds* are utility functions.
- Graph topology describes decision problem.
- Each node specifies a probability distribution (CPD) given each value of parents.



Multi-agent Influence Diagrams

[Milch and Koller '01]

- Extend Influence Diagrams to the multi-agent case.
- Rectangles and diamonds represent decisions and utilities associated with agents; ovals represent chance variables.
- A strategy for a decision is a mapping from the informational parents of the decision to a value in its domain.
- A strategy profile includes strategies for all decisions.



Reasoning Patterns through IDs

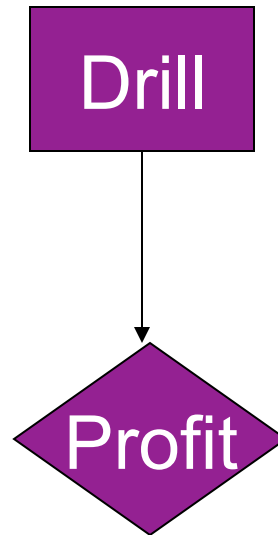
- Informally, a reasoning pattern is a form of argument that leads to and explains a decision
 - e.g.
 - modus ponens in logic
 - explaining away in Bayes nets
- **What reasoning patterns can agents use in *interactive* decision making contexts?**

[A. Pfeffer & Y. Gal, On the reasoning patterns of agents in games, In Proc. AAAI 2007]

Characterization of Reasoning Patterns

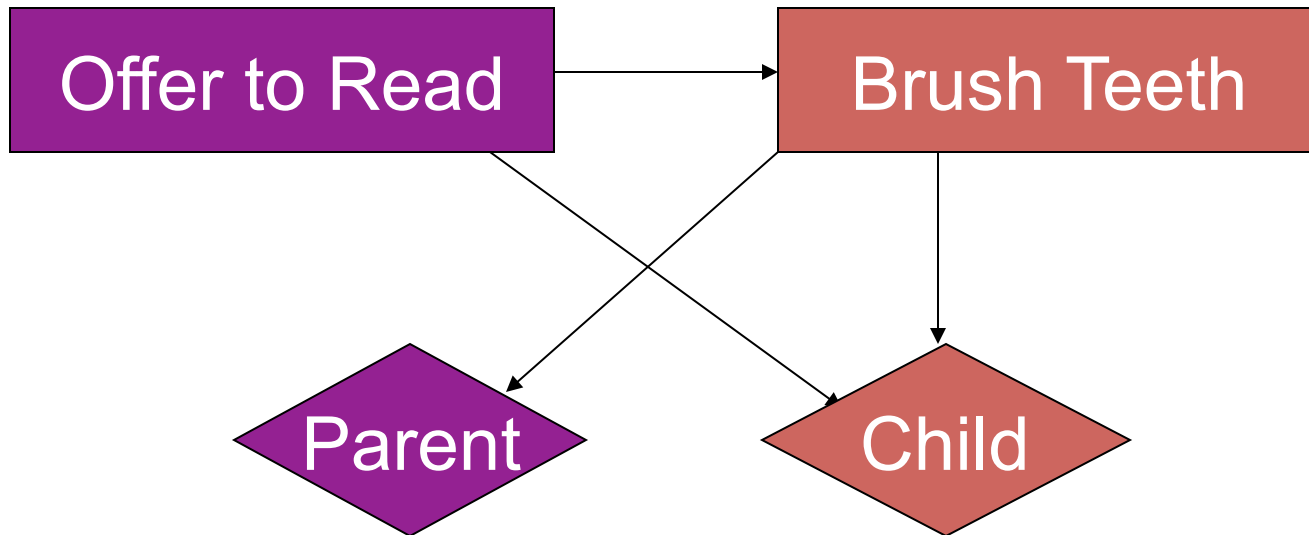
- Four basic reasoning patterns, each characterized by paths in a multiple-agent version of influence diagrams
- Characterization based on graphical criteria only
 - could further refine characterization based on numerical parameters

Reasoning Pattern #1: Direct Effect



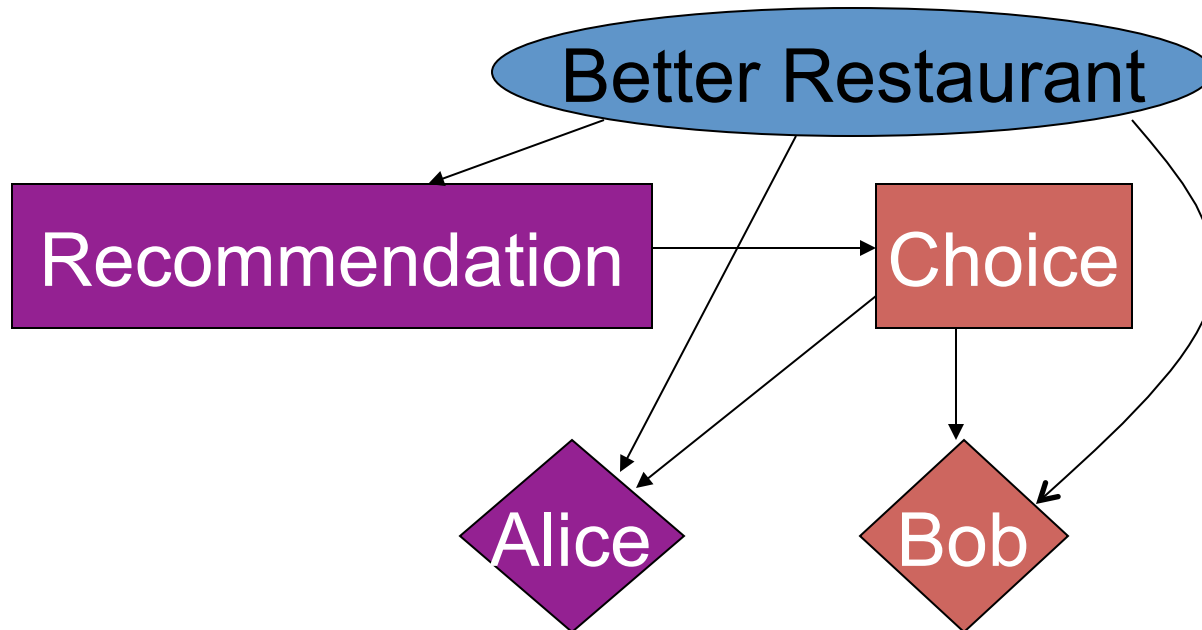
- An agent takes a decision because of its direct effect on its utility
 - without being mediated by other agents' actions

Reasoning Pattern #2: Manipulation



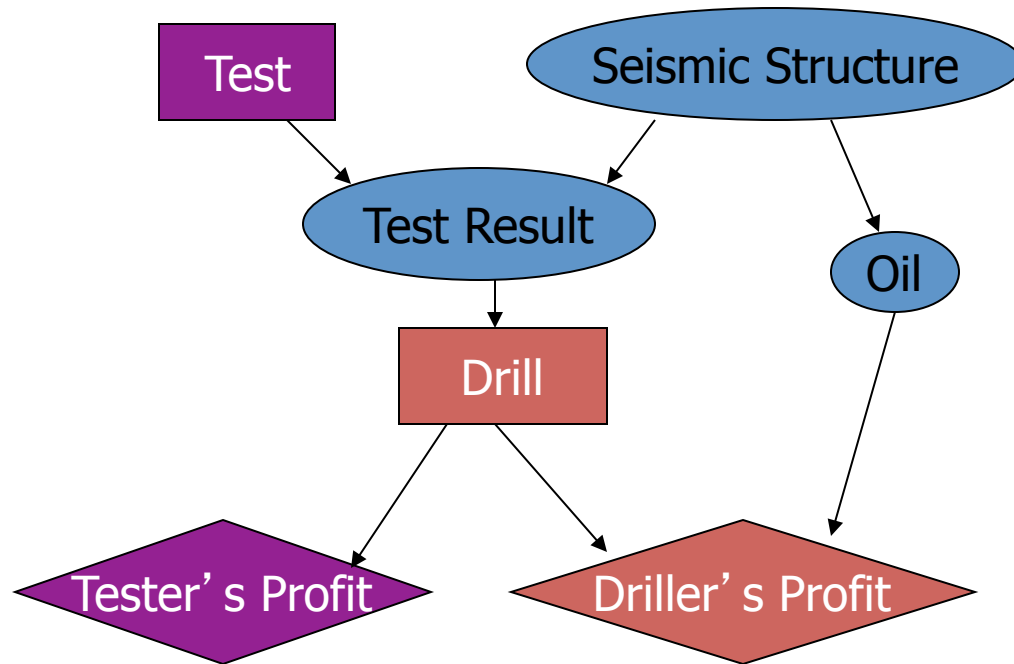
- Child knows about parent's action
 - Parent does not care about reading, but wants child to brush teeth
 - Child dislikes brushing teeth but likes being read to
- ⇒ Parent can manipulate child

Reasoning Pattern #3: Signaling



- A communicates something that she knows to B, thus influencing B's behavior

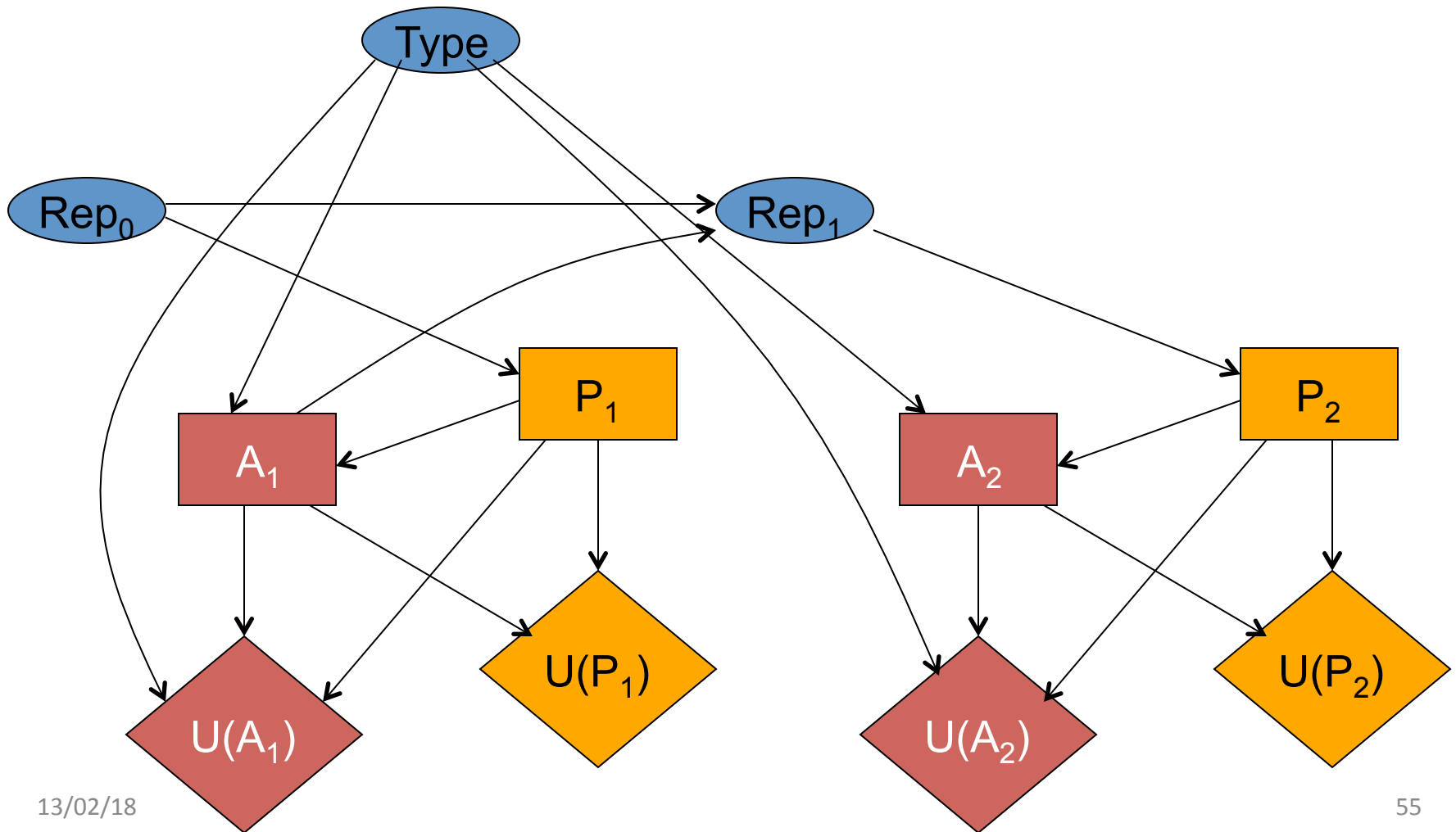
Reasoning Pattern #4: Revealing/Denying



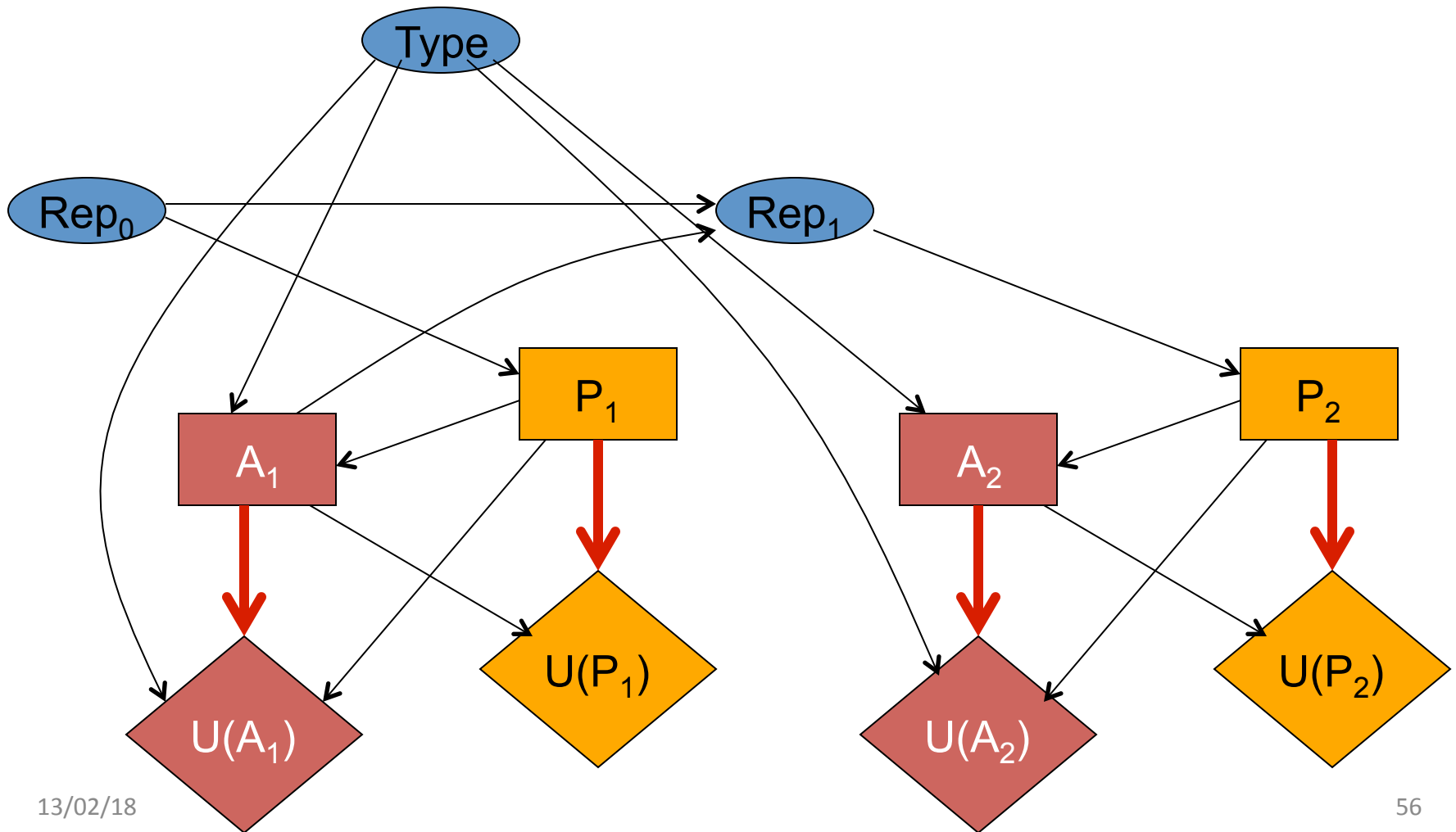
- Driller cares about oil
- Tester receives fee if driller drills
- Tester causes driller to find out (or not) about information tester herself does *not* know

Example: Two Stage Principal-Agent *Game*

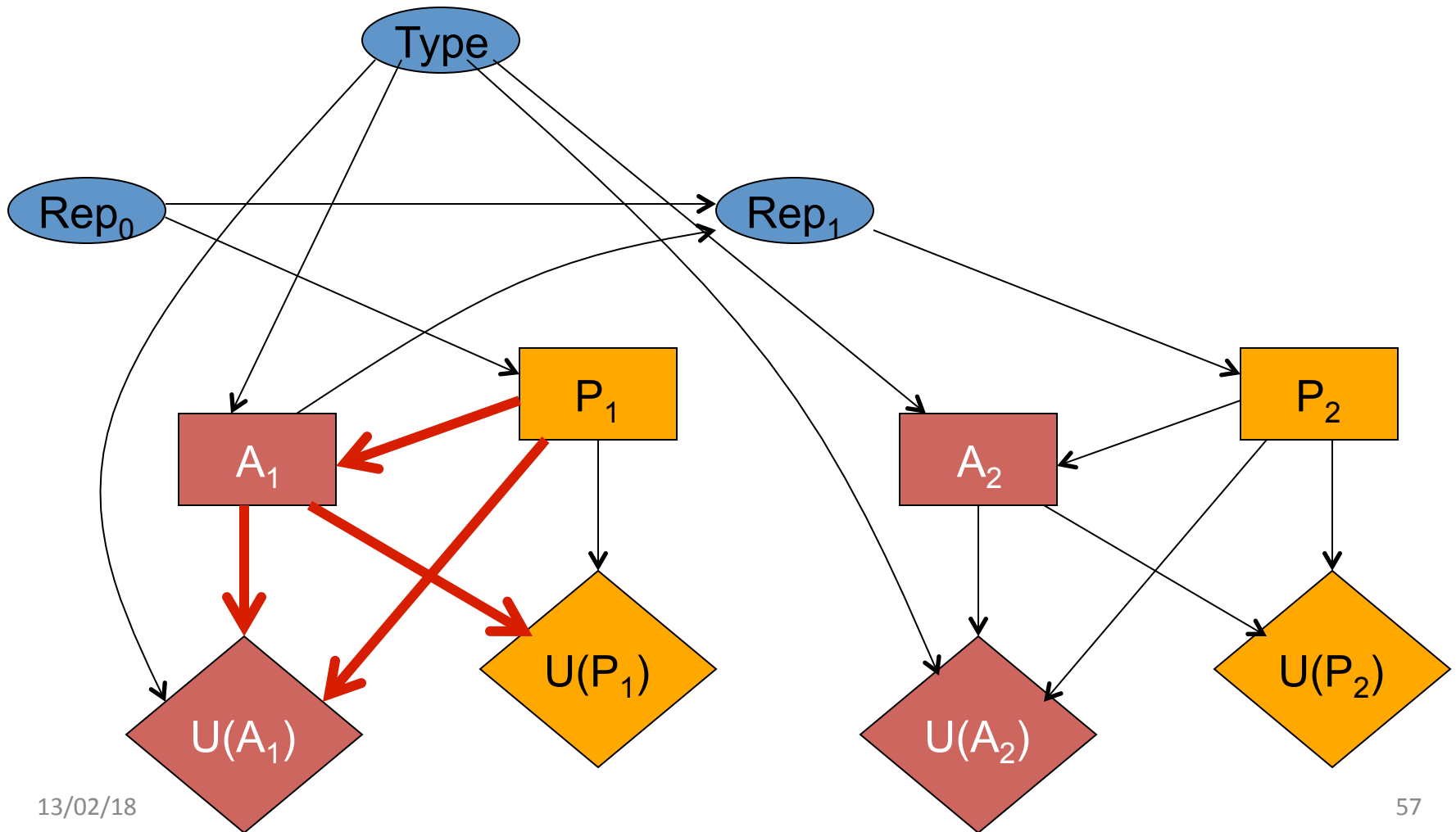
Type: described parameters specific to an agent
Rep: Quantification of "Reputation"



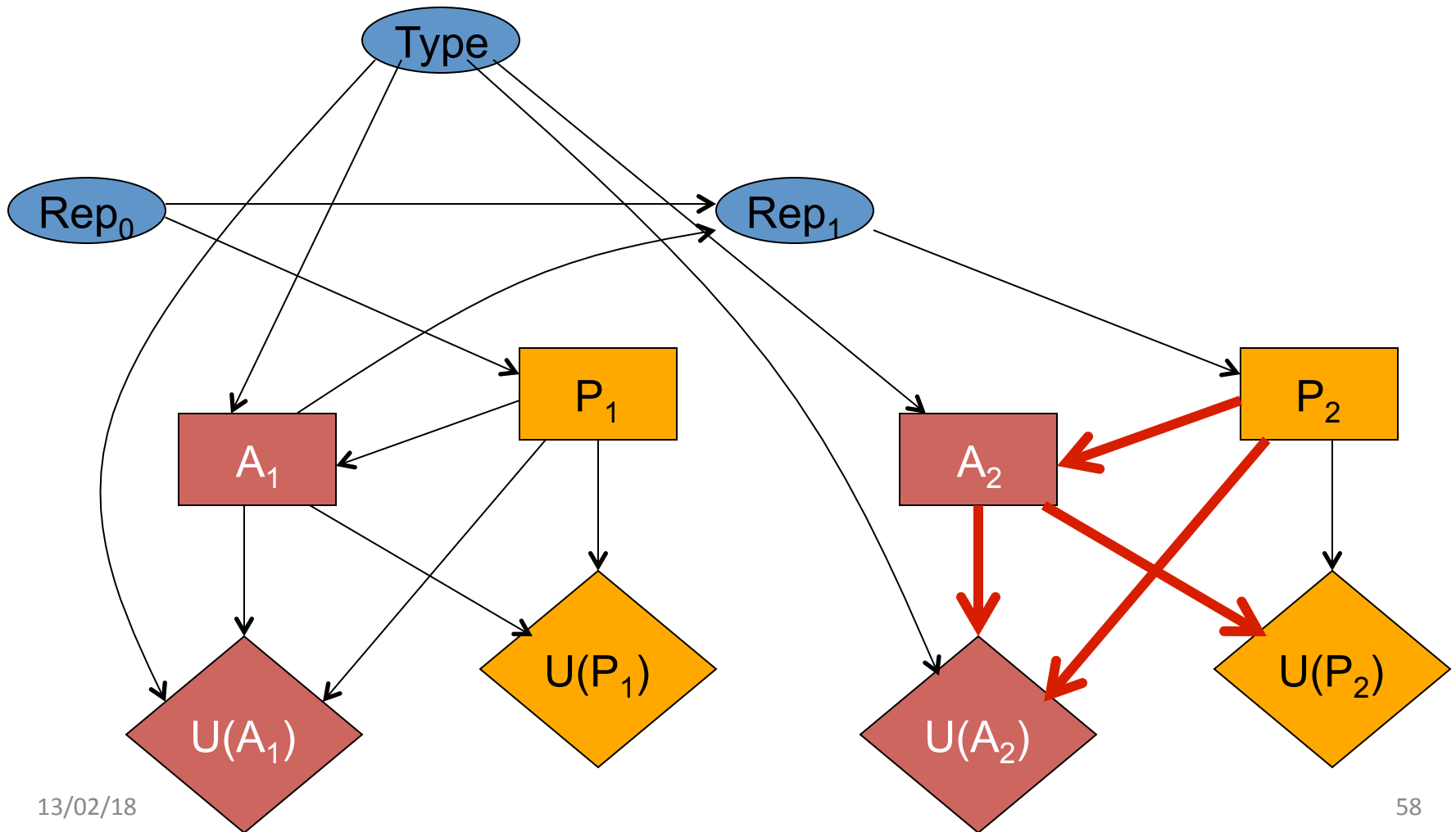
Direct Effect For All Four Decisions



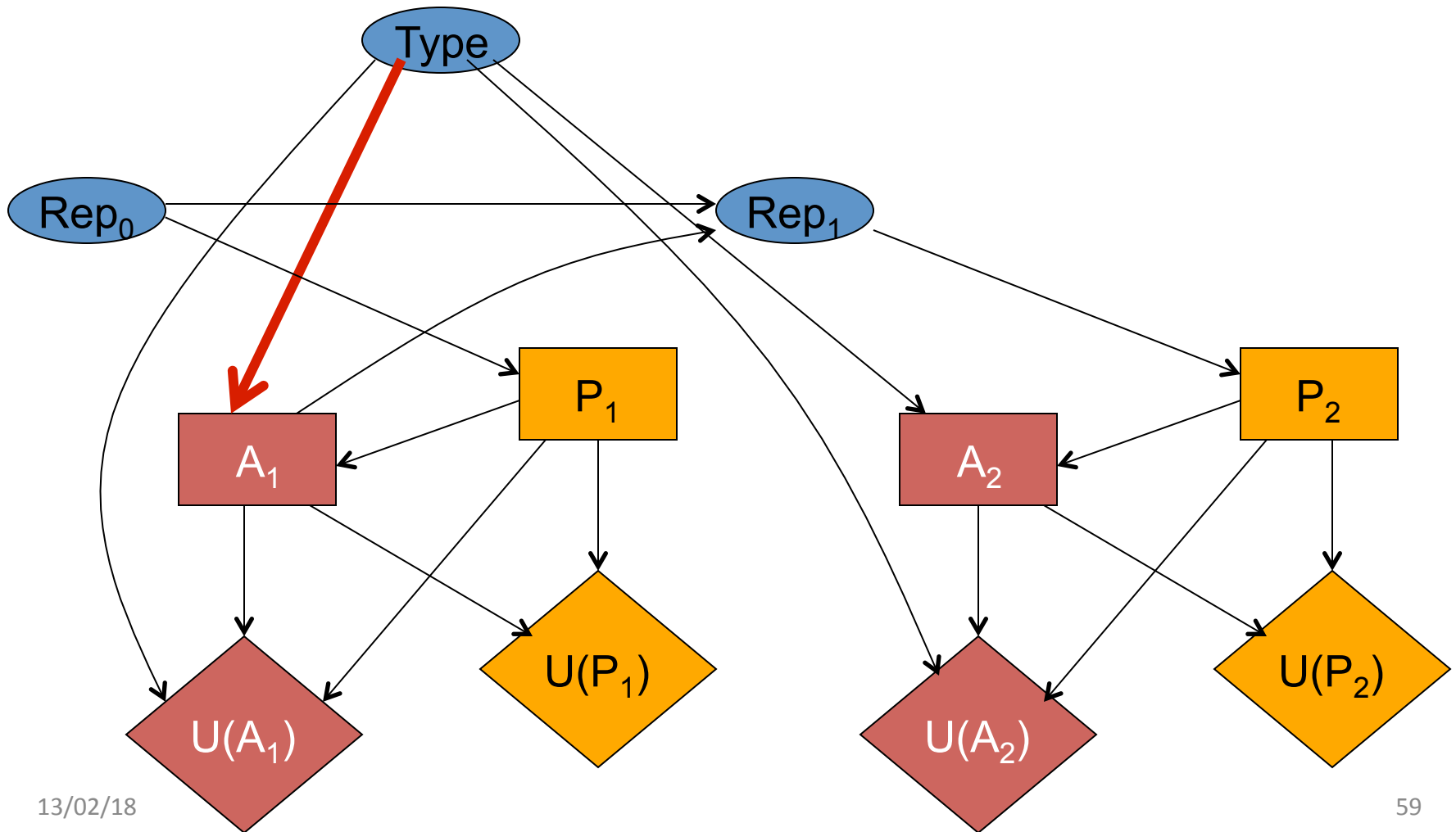
Manipulation ($P_1 \rightarrow A_1$)



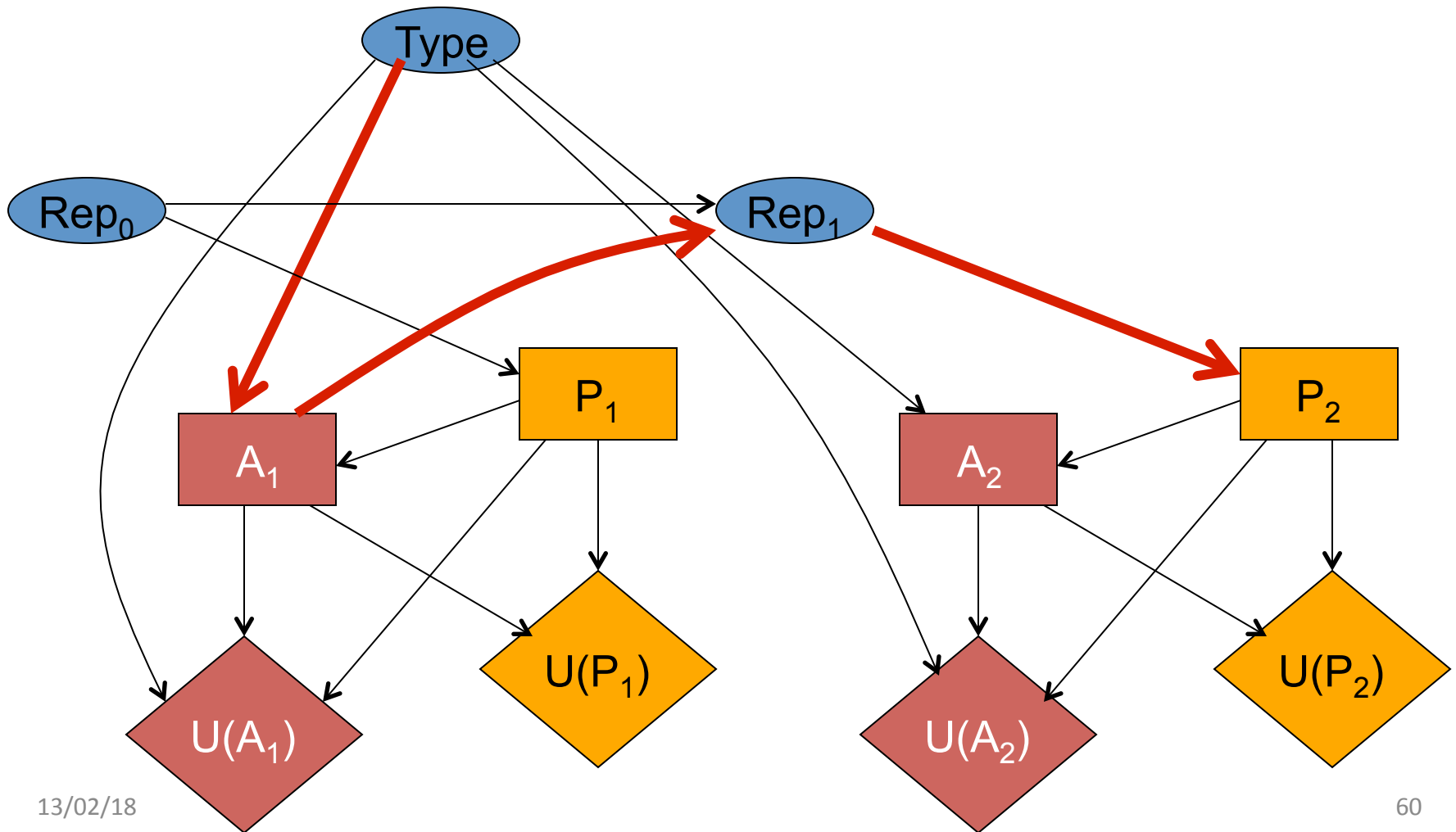
Manipulation ($P_2 \rightarrow A_2$)



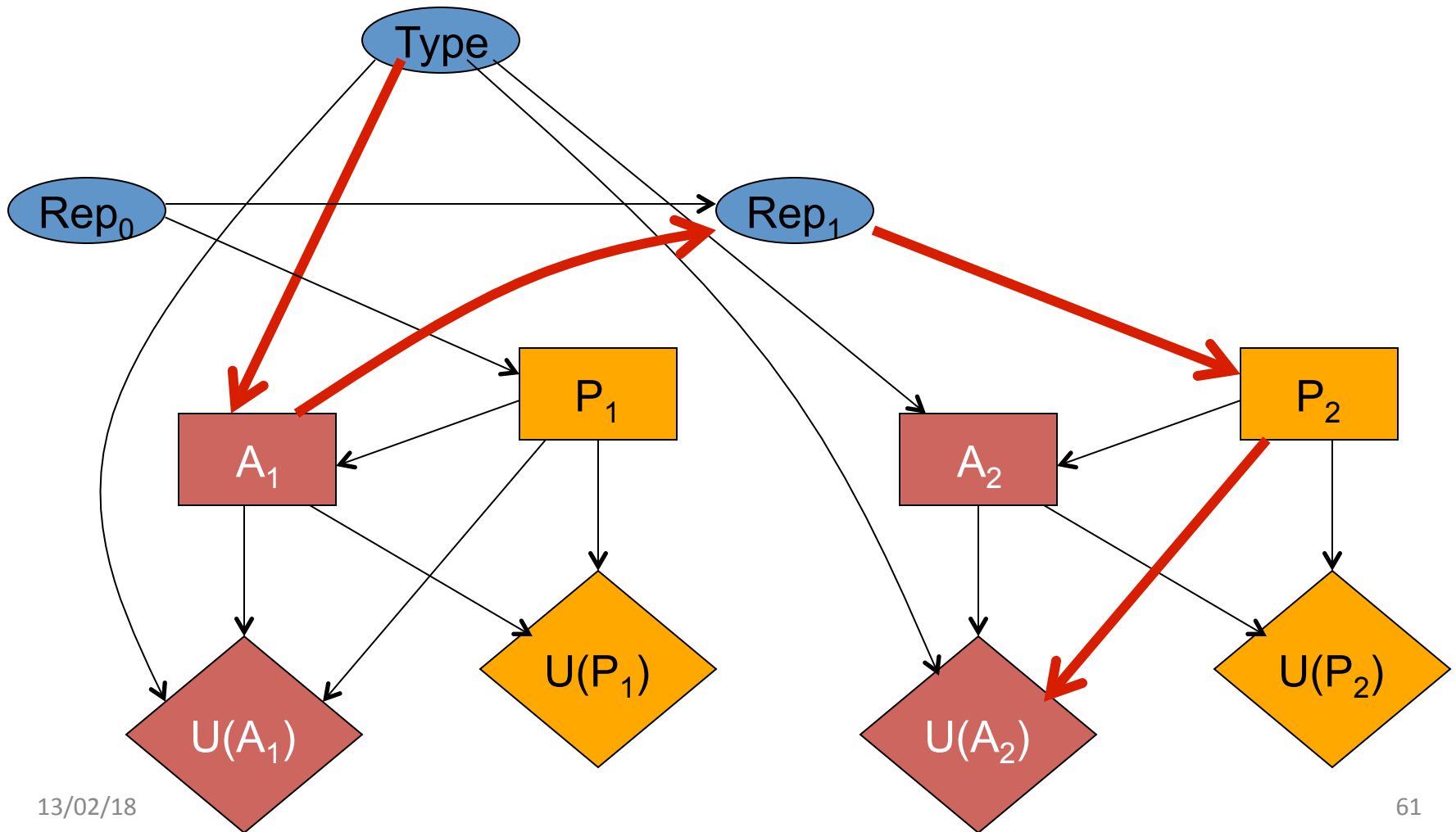
Signaling (A_1 signals Type to P_2)



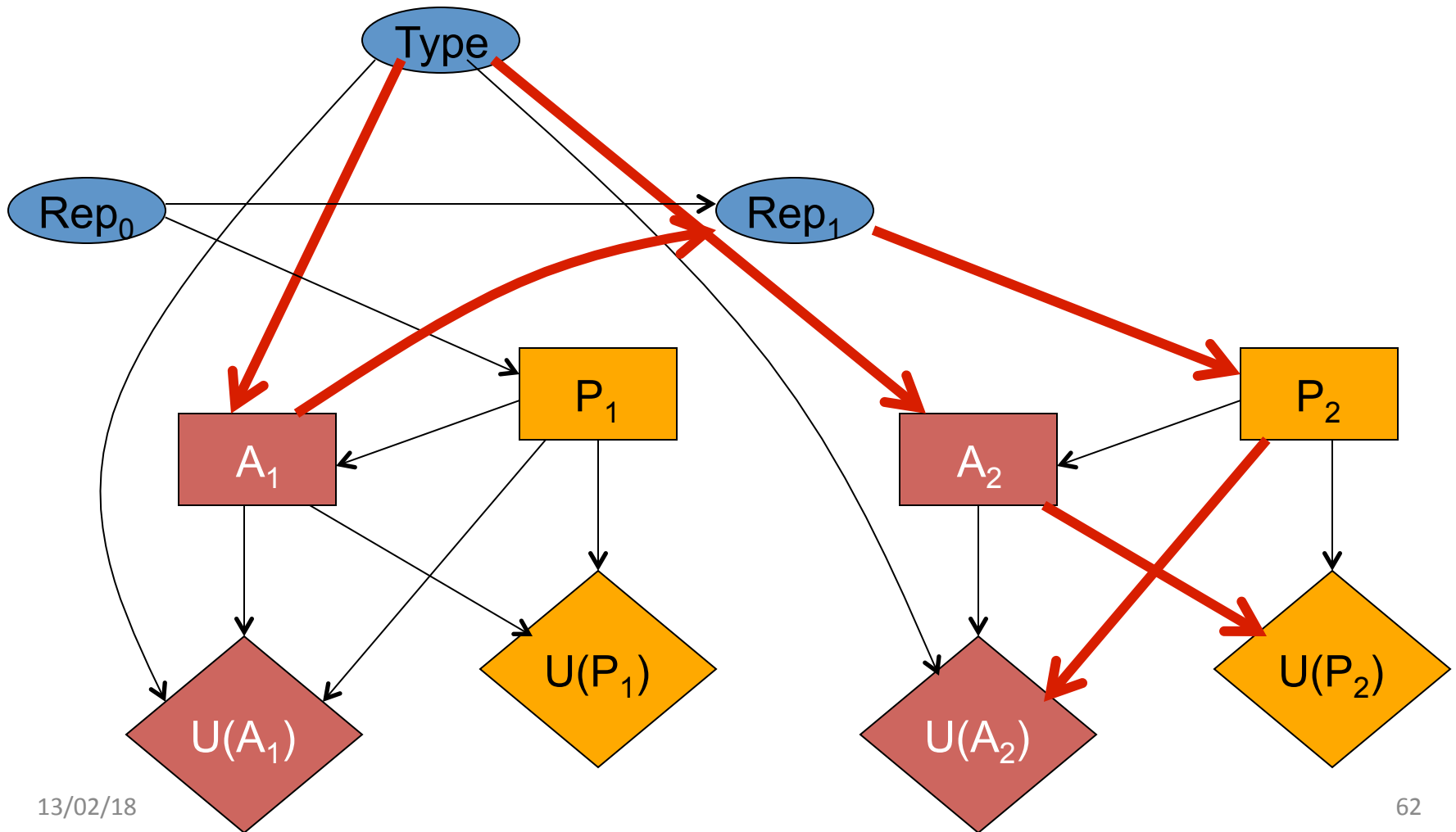
Signaling (A_1 signals Type to P_2)



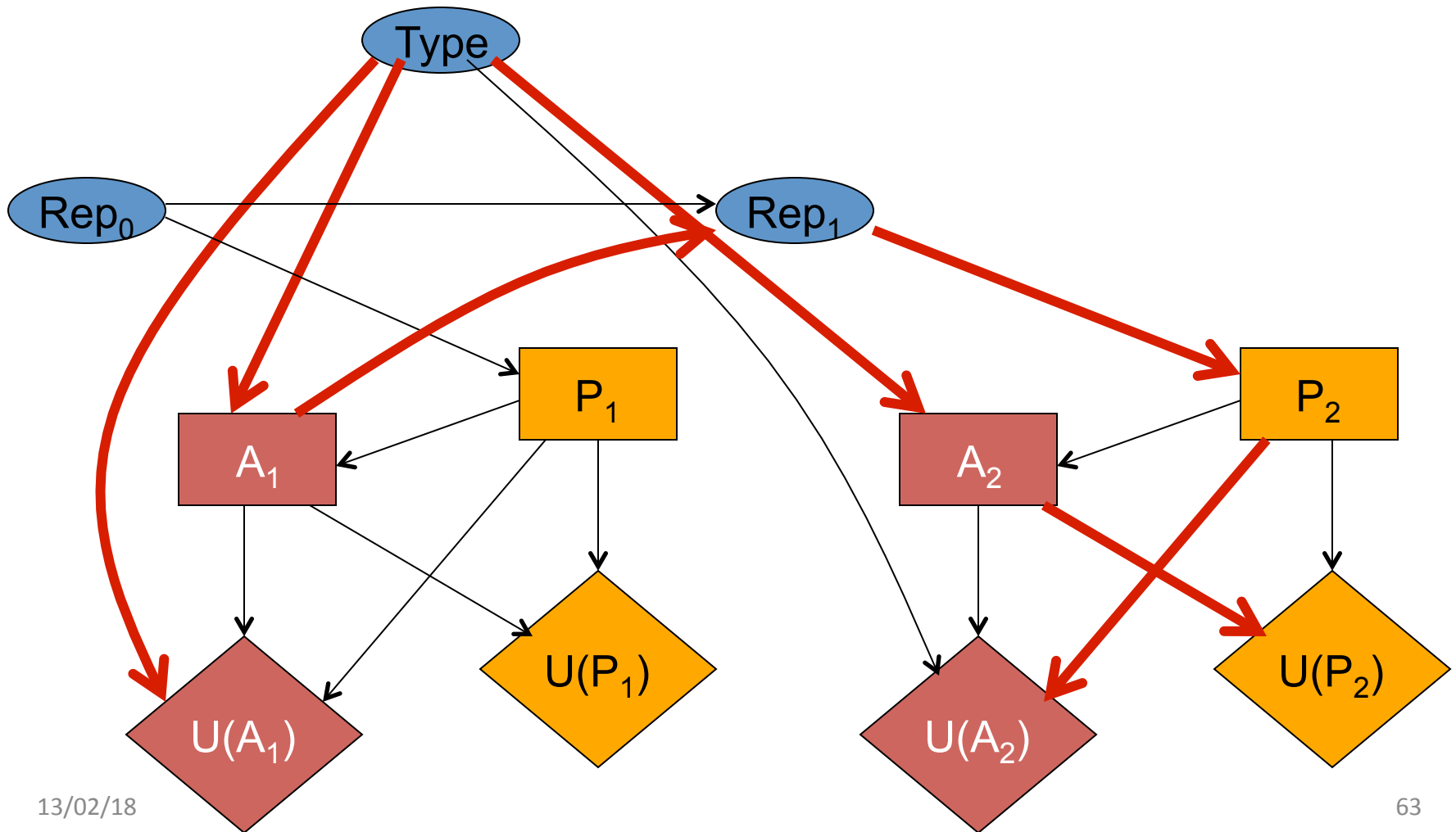
Signaling (A_1 signals Type to P_2)



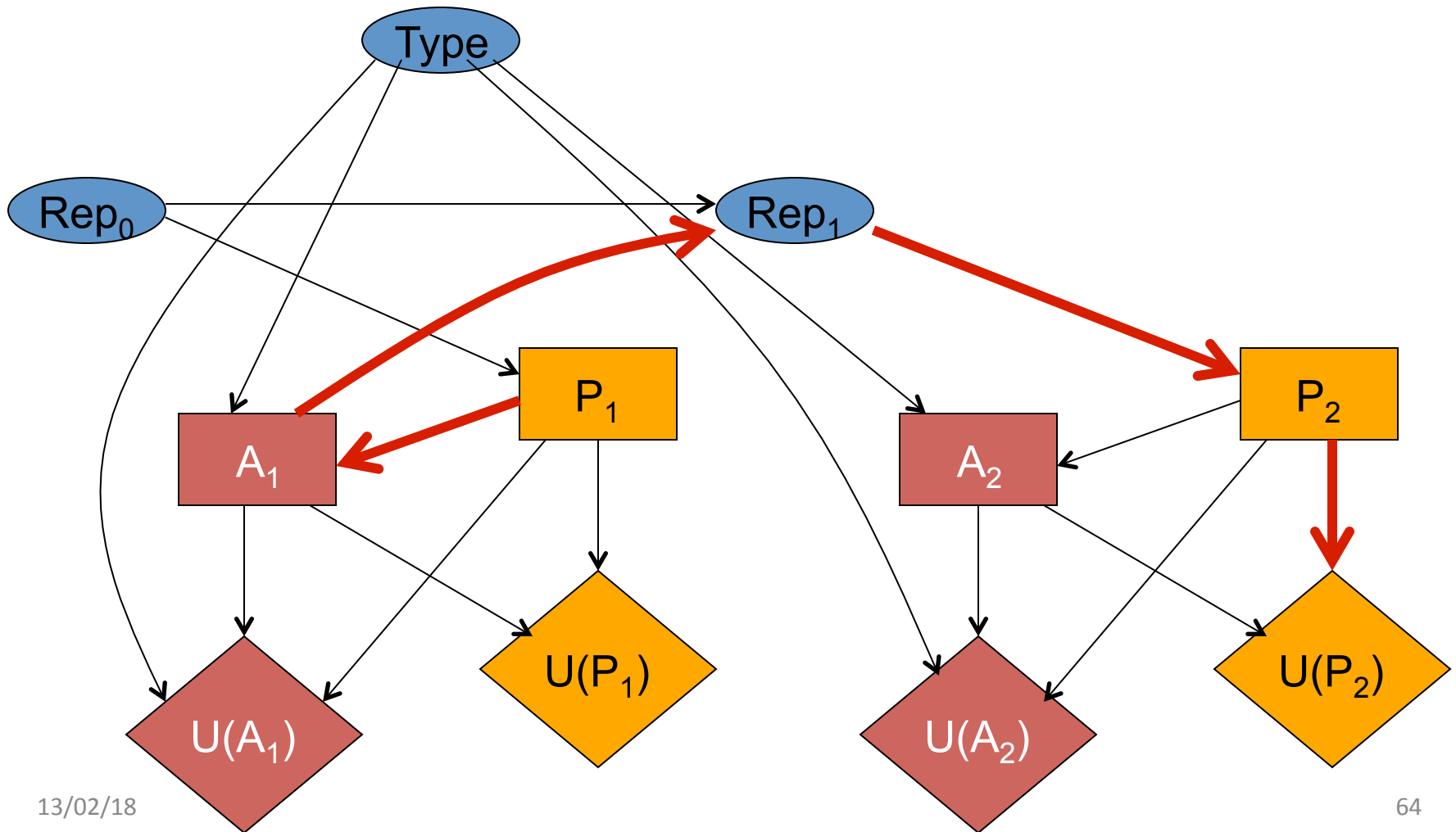
Signaling (A_1 signals Type to P_2)



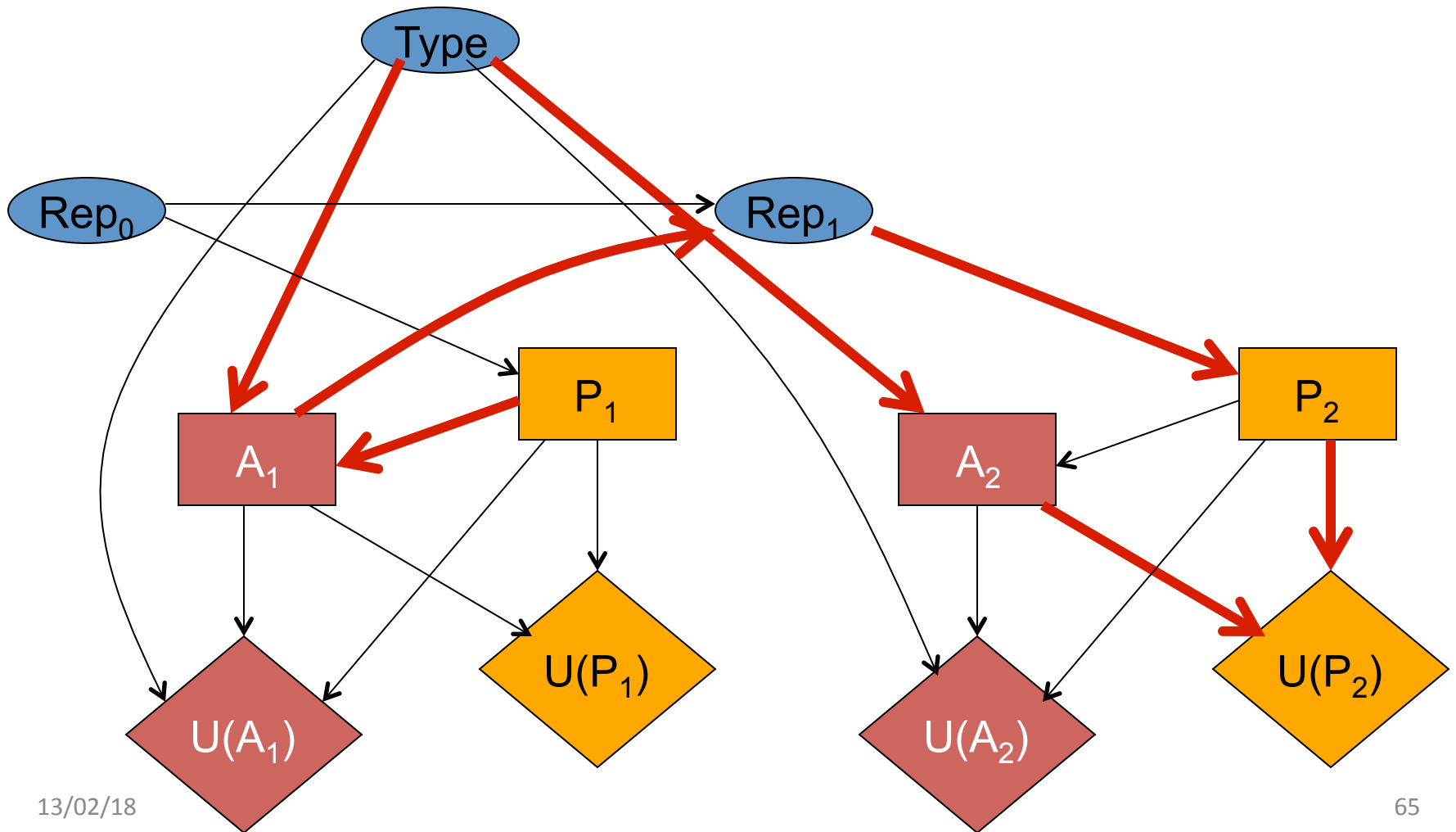
Signaling (A_1 signals Type to P_2)



Revealing/Denying (P_1 reveals Type to P_2)



Revealing/Denying (P_1 reveals Type to P_2)



Acknowledgement

The source of some of these slides is a VLDB 2014 tutorial entitled “Causality and Explanations in Databases”, by Meliou, Roy, Suciu.